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ABSTRACT

This paper makes a developmental study of vocabulary acquisition by 2 groups of English as a second language learners (School East and School West) who have different degrees of exposure to English input. It focuses on the repetition patterns that characterise their inter-language as they progress along the developmental continuum. The study seeks to investigate whether or not second language learners with different degrees of exposure to English input can be said to exhibit different lexical repetition patterns in their inter-language. The method of data analysis revolves around the analysis of types and tokens and is informed by research methods that were pioneered by Kaeding (1898) and later Hormann (1971). Results indicate that pupils from School West who have little exposure to English input realise high lexical repetition scores while learners from School East whose exposure to English input is considerable realise low lexical repetition scores. The paper concludes that those learners with high percentages in average repetition rates are more likely to be less proficient in the use of those lexical items than those learners with low percentages of average lexical repetition rates.

Introduction

This paper is on the vocabulary development of English as a second language pupils at 2 urban schools in Zimbabwe. The main focus of the study is lexical repetitions in relation to vocabulary development. The importance of vocabulary in language learning has been expressed by several scholars. For example, McCarthy (1990), cited in Bamford (1991:228) and McCarthy (2001:398) has suggested that vocabulary is the single biggest component in language and yet it has received the least attention. Some scholars like Luppescu and Day (1993:264) have even suggested that knowledge of vocabulary is an excellent predictor of the learner's general linguistic proficiency. Widdowson (1993:317), citing a letter written by Jonathan Swift

in 1720 to a young clergyman, has remarked that the true definition of style lies in the writer's ability to put proper words in proper places. And more recently, Newton (2001:30) has suggested that the main task which is faced by a second language learner is being able to manage new vocabulary while also maintaining the flow of communication. Moreover, as Kerim-Zade and Pavlov (1989:382) have suggested, because words are polysemantic, learners find it difficult to use them in their full range of functions.

In this paper, the researcher postulates an argument that learners who are exposed to different kinds of English input may exhibit different patterns of lexical repetition. Before analysing the data, the researcher makes a description of what repetition entails drawing on the work of scholars such as Murata (1995), Halliday and Hasan (1976), Leech and Short (1981), Brown (1987) and Leech and Svartvik (1975) who seem to view repetition positively. These views will be contrasted with those of Tarone and Yule (1989:110) who have cautioned that it is not in all cases that repetition is as helpful as is suggested. Secondly, a brief description of theoretical approaches that have been used by scholars such as Hornmann (1971) and Snow (1996) will be made. Thirdly, a framework for the description of repetition rates based on the type-token ratio (TTR), will be discussed, pointing out some of the problems that are associated with it. And lastly, a description of lexical repetition rates for schools East and West, as well as those of randomly selected native speakers will be made.

Several scholars have argued that linguistic analysis can be done with the help of statistics and arithmetic calculations. They also argue that linguistic events can be investigated with the same degree of objectivity as say the investigation of natural events such as the social behaviour of ants.

Lexical Repetition

Lexical repetition has been viewed by several scholars as an integral part of the process of communication. Some scholars however, have expressed the view that it is not all the time and in all cases that lexical repetition is helpful in communication. Below, some studies pertaining to the two views referred to above are briefly described, starting with the former. Murata (1995:344) views repetition as an aspect of communicative behaviour, and says that, basically, repetition can be divided into two broad categories, namely, 'self' repetitions, in which a speaker repeats his/her own utterances and 'other' repetitions where the speaker repeats the utterances of her/his conversational partner. Furthermore, Murata suggests that repetition can also be classified according to five interactional functions

namely, interruption oriented, solidarity, silence avoidance, hesitation and formulation repetitions. Interruption oriented repetitions are 'self' repetitions which Murata (1995:346) has described as 'floor taking and topic changing interruptions' and are used by a conversationalist in order to change the conversational topic. By solidarity repetitions, Murata refers to two-party repetitions where speakers repeat each others' words in order to express cooperation and agreement with each other. Murata (1995:349) citing Tannen (1989:59-62) has described this kind of repetition as 'participatory listenership'.

Silence-avoidance repetitions are two-party repetitions which are used by conversationalists mainly to avoid periods of silence during conversation. Murata says that silence avoidance repetitions are mainly used by native speakers of English who believe that silence during conversation, is against the 'cooperative nature of English interactions. Another type of repetition is called hesitation repetition. This type of repetition is used to avoid quick turn-taking in conversation, which might sound aggressive to the conversational partner. Murata (1995:352) reports that hesitation repetitions also occur because learners doubt their competence in the use of certain linguistic features. Reformulation repetition, is another type of repetition where a speaker reformulates utterances which he has already used in order to make the utterance less imposing to a conversational partner. In 'immediate' repetition words that are repeated occur close together within sentences and texts whilst in 'distant' repetition, words that are repeated do not occur as close together as stated above, but occur somewhere within the same text.

From the discussion above, it appears, therefore, that there are two positions regarding repetition. One is that lexical repetition is facilitative to the process of communication. Such repetition can serve what Halliday and Hasan (1976:4) have called a cohesive function. Also, Leech and Short (1981:96) argue that repetition is facilitative to the process of communication when a word is repeated to reinforce an idea which has already been mentioned or described. Sometimes lexical repetition, as Leech and Svartvik (1975:105) suggest, is used to indicate 'continuing change'. And according to Brown (1987:93), sometimes lexical repetition can be used to denote degree. Furthermore, Brown (1987:93) suggests that sometimes lexical repetition occurs when a learner imitates or repeats models that are presented by the teacher. The positive aspects of lexical repetition are explicitly summarized by Leech and Short (1981:24) when they describe it as: '...an aesthetic counter balance to the elegant variation and gives emotive heightening to repeated meaning'.

However, some scholars like Meier (1964) cited in Hormann (1971:85) have suggested that some texts which are characterised by repetition tend to be 'lexically restricted'. This view is supported by Leech and Short (1981:204) as well as by Tarone and Yule (1989:110) who have suggested that sometimes lexical repetitions occur because the learner lacks, or does not have the appropriate lexical items to use in a given linguistic context.

Lexical development

In the 1970s, several indices were developed to measure 'development' in child language. One such procedure according to Snow (1996:78) has been used to measure spontaneous children's utterances and involves counting the number of tokens (words) that a child produces per standard length of time. If a minute is used as a unit of time, then the tokens that are determined by the count are labelled 'word tokens per minute', and if ten minutes are used, the tokens would be labelled 'word tokens per ten minutes'. It is perhaps worth emphasising, that the method of counting words to enable researchers to make informed linguistic decisions is not a new one. According to Van Els (1986:198), it is a practice that has been in existence in one form or another for a long time. For instance, one of the most celebrated word counts was conducted by Kaeding in 1878. He conducted a word frequency count on a corpus of 11,000,000 German words to determine words which had the highest rate of occurrence in written German. Another famous word count was done by Thorndike and Lorge in 1944 on a corpus of 18,000,000 words.

These word counts were useful in a variety of ways. According to Hormann (1971:82), linguists like Kaeding had long recognised that linguistic analysis could be done with the help of statistics, a point he makes explicit when he says; 'linguistic events can be investigated with the same objectivity as the investigation of such natural events as sun spots or social behaviour of ants. Hormann (1971:89) also reports that word counts that were conducted by Thorndike and Lorge were used in the systematic study of readability in texts. These researchers were of the view that texts that were easy to read or easy to understand, were those texts that contained words that occurred frequently in a language, whilst those texts that were difficult to read were those texts that contained words that were used infrequently. Readability was important in determining appropriate language for advertisements. Word counts were also used in psychological experiments in order to systematically vary verbal materials. Researchers in the word frequency counts tradition argued that there is a relationship between the speed with which a word is perceived and the frequency of occurrence of such a word in everyday life. Word frequency counts were also used in the study of

sequential psycholinguistics. Sequential psycholinguistics deals with how succeeding events of a linguistic sequence influence each other. Hormann (1971:97) says that in sequential psycholinguistics, there is an assumption that linguistic events occur as a Markov process. A Markov process, which was named after the Russian mathematician A. Markov, is a stochastic process, where linguistic events are said to occur according to the laws of probability. Hormann has summarised this linguistic behaviour when he says, 'the probability of an occurrence of a certain state in the future can be fully predicted from the present state'.

Type-Token ratio as framework for analysis of lexical repetition rates

The framework that is used in the calculation of lexical repetition rates is based on the type-token ratio (TTR), a formula which has been used by researchers to measure what Giles and Powesland (1975:138) have called vocabulary flexibility, as well as frequency of occurrence of words in texts. The type-token ratio has also been used, according to Johnson (1979:213), to measure lexical richness, diversity and heterogeneity of the authour's vocabulary.

According to Hormann (1971:88), and Butler (1985:14), the type-token ratio is calculated by expressing the total number of different words in a text, called types, as a ratio of the total number of running words in a text (tokens). For example, Hormann (1971:88) says that in a text of 65 words, if one word occurs 4 times, five words 3 times each, nine words 2 times each, and twenty eight words 1 time each, the type-token ratio would be 43:65 or 0.66. Johnson (1975:214) says that the formula for calculating type-token ratio is as presented in Figure 1:

$$R = \frac{S}{N}$$

Figure 1. Formula for the calculation of the type-token ratio. (Source: Johnson, 1979: 214).

In Figure 1, R represents ratio, S represents the number of different types, while N represents tokens. Johnson (1979:213) reports that type-token ratio symbols have not been used consistently by researchers. For example, Yule (1944, cited in Johnson, 1979: 213) has used symbol N and V to represent number of tokens in a text and number of types respectively as in Figure 2:

$$R = \frac{V}{N}$$

Figure 2. Formula for the calculation of type-token ratio. (Based on Yule 1944 cited in Johnson 1979:213).

On the other hand, other researchers have used N to represent sample vocabulary as well as number of types, whilst the symbol V has been used to represent size of the vocabulary as in Figure 3:

$$R = \frac{N}{V}$$

Figure 3. Formula for the calculation of type token ratio. (Based on Muller 1960 cited in Johnson 1979:213)

In order to make a comparative description of lexical repetition rates of pupils at two urban schools in Zimbabwe, the framework that is used is as presented below:

$$R = \frac{S}{N} \quad (\text{expressed as a percentage})$$

Figure 4. Formula for the calculation of lexical repetition rates. (Adopted from Johnson 1979:214).

Figure 4 is a slight modification of Figure 1 in terms of its application. The symbol R represents ratio, but the scores in this study will be presented in percentages and not in decimals as is the case with Johnson's scores. The symbols S and N represent, respectively, the total number of repeated content words in the text (types) and the number of content words in the text (tokens). And, two or more words that belong to the same lexical unit, in their various grammatical forms, such as play, plays, playing and played are considered as repeated word types if they occur in the same text, although they are morphologically different. To facilitate the analysis of data, each day of the month on which data was collected constitutes a single Time with a capital 'T'. If data was collected on 17 January, the data collection day will be labelled Time 17/1. The researcher did not use the labels Time 1 and Time 2 as some researchers have done e.g. Ellis (1986:96) in his description of the diffusion model for negatives, because such a method does not specify the specific dates and months on which data was collected. To calculate the lexical repetition rates, the total number of repeated content words in a text are expressed as a ratio (percentage) of the total number of content words used in the same text. All repeated content words (types) are calculated as a percentage of all content words (tokens) used irrespective

of how often they are used. If, for example, the total number of repeated words is 16 and the total number of content words used is 80, the learner's rate of repetition for that text would be 20%.

Two different sets of calculations are made. The first involves the calculation of overall lexical repetition rates for all content items. The second involves the calculation of Verb Repetition Rates (VRR). The researcher conducts separate lexical repetition calculations for verbs because verbs, together with nouns, are the most content-full words in English. To calculate verb repetition rates, he expresses the total number of repeated verb types, as a ratio (percentage) of the total number of verbs (tokens) used in a text as shown in Figures 5:

$$R = \frac{\text{Total number of repeated verbs (types) \%}}{\text{Total number of verbs used in a text (tokens)}}$$

Figure 5. Formula for the calculation of verb repetition rates.

It may be helpful to emphasise that, following linguistic practice for example, Snow (1996:78), only 'content' and not 'grammatical' words are counted. Content words are lexical items such as nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, which have lexical meaning. Louw and Jordan (1993:135) have described such words as 'full words' because they contain what they refer to as, 'obvious semantic meaning'.

One major problem with the use of the type-token ratio, according to Hormann (1971:88), is the fact that repetition rates tend to increase with increasing text length. In order to reduce the effect of such a defect, a cue can be taken from the work of Flesch (1946) cited in Hormann (1971:90), who, in a study of readability in texts, go round the problem by counting only the first 100 words of a paragraph in a book or article. Following Flesch's methodology therefore, the researcher decides to restrict the counting of the samples to the first 30 to 40 content words in each text. This ensures that the sizes of all texts used are fairly similar. And, following Henzl and Kleifgen (1985), cited in Ellis (1990:75) groups that realise high lexical repetition rates may be less proficient in the use of lexical items than groups with low lexical repetition rates. To calculate lexical repetition rates, data from 31 pupils is used. Data from these 31 pupils is taken to be representative of that of other pupils. To capture the developmental profile of the 8 and 7 pupils from each school, graphs are used. Each graph has a vertical line on the extreme left marked 0 to 80 which helps indicate lexical repetition rates realised by each of the pupils. On the horizontal line, different Times on which data was collected are indicated.

Parallel to the horizontal line, various lexical repetition rates are shown. These rates are the same as those marked on the vertical lines that run parallel to the vertical lines on the extreme left already referred to above. On the extreme right of each graph, the average lexical repetition score for each pupil is shown. The average is calculated by adding all the lexical repetition rates shown on the horizontal line and which are also marked on the vertical lines and then dividing the total by the number of Times that appear parallel to the horizontal line. Finally, the group average shown at the bottom right hand corner of the page is calculated by first adding up all the average repetition scores for all the pupils in each group and then dividing the total by 8 for School West and by 7 for School East.

Subjects and data

Data were collected from two schools the researcher has labelled East and West, located in two different sociolinguistic environments in Harare. School East is multiracial and is located in an English acquisition rich environment. Pupils are exposed to English input at school and at home. All the pupils are girls and the majority are first language speakers of English except 7 who are second language speakers of English and who were the main focus of this study. The teacher is a native speaker of English and insists that pupils speak to her and to each other in English all the time. School West is located in an English acquisition poor environment. All the pupils as well as the teacher are second language speakers of English. Pupils are encouraged to speak to each other in English in the classroom and out of the classroom but they never do. The researcher decided to conduct this research in grade five because this seemed an appropriate stage by which all pupils should have gained familiarity with English. The data were recorded using a tape recorder in order to facilitate the collection of natural language. During the recording process, the researcher would take over the class from the class-teacher once every week or once every three weeks.

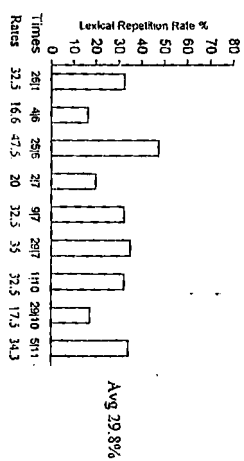
Very often the pupils would take turns to speak for almost as long as they could, but each recording period was about thirty minutes long. And, most of the times, the topic was chosen by the researcher if it was perceived to be of interest to learners. The utterances were addressed partly to the researcher but mainly to other pupils who sometimes interjected and asked questions to seek clarification. And in gathering the data, the researcher used what Ellis (1990:8) calls participant ethnography where the researcher participates in the activities being done by the pupils. The pupils were not told of the topic in advance so the discourse was unplanned. After recording, the data were transcribed and analysed in order to determine the repetition

rates. The pupils participated willingly and enthusiastically and usually, the atmosphere in the classroom during recording was jovial. All data was to be collected within the confines of the classroom.

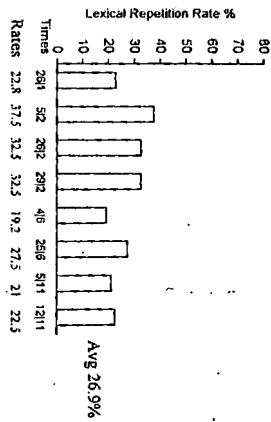
Analysis of repetition rates for all lexical items: School East

In this section of the analysis, the following argument will be raised:

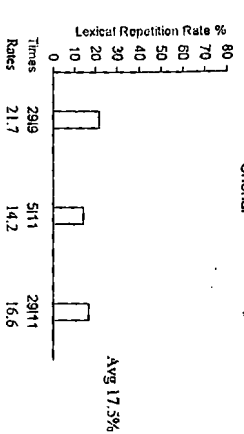
- (a) Noun repetition rates increase over time when the topic is repeated.
- (b) School East verb repetition rates are by far lower than those of School West groups.
- (c) Verb repetition rates increase over time when the topic is repeated.



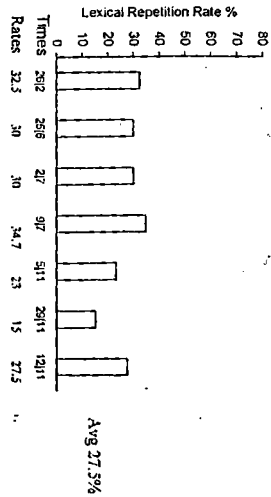
Bertia



Kudzei

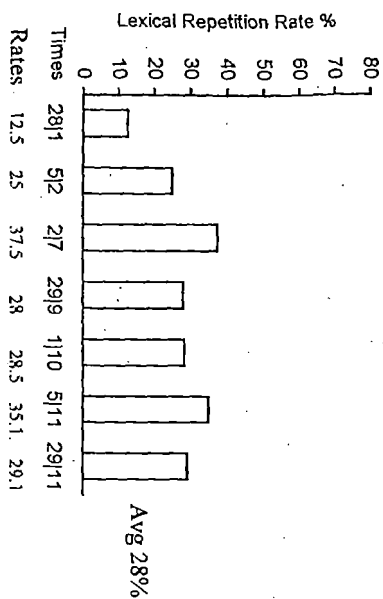


Chenai



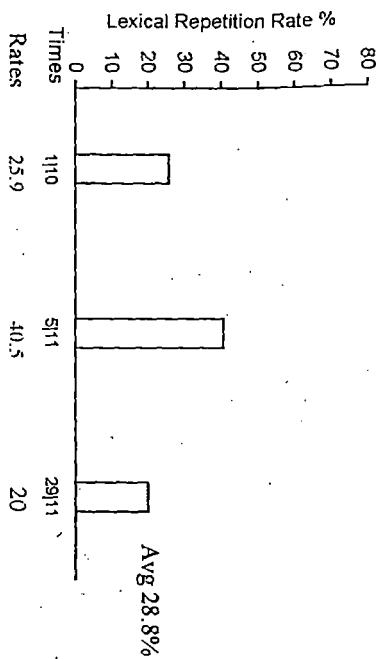
Tessa

Neria

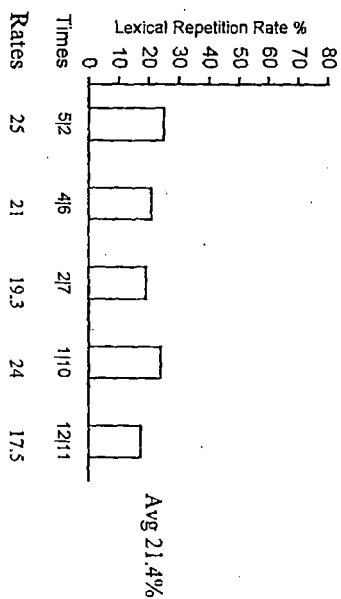


:ast

Vanessa



Natasha



The researcher begins by describing the overall repetition rates for all content lexical items for School East pupils. If School East lexical repetition rates for all content items are compared with those of School West, it is noted that School East pupils realise the average lexical repetition rate of 25.7%. This rate is nearly half of the average lexical repetition rates for School West pupils which is 49.7%. The highest average lexical repetition rate of 29.8% which is realised by Benita is lower than the lowest lexical repetition rate at School West which is 35.4%, which has been realised by Tatenda. In fact, all the average lexical repetition rates for School East pupils are lower than all the average lexical repetition rates for School West pupils. Furthermore, the highest average lexical repetition rates of 60.1% which is realised by Petai of School West is double the highest average lexical repetition rate of 29.8% which is realised by Benita of School East. The topics that were discussed varied and included the following: 'What I did during the holiday', 'A ghost story', 'My dreams', 'The party I attended' and 'My favourite subject'. The graphs enable the researcher to compare repetition rates for pupils from the same group as well as compare rates for pupils from the other group

Analysis of repetition rates for verbs: School East

The average verb repetition rate for School East is 22%. When compared to the 32% verb repetition rate of School West pupils, it can be seen that the average repetition rate for School East is much lower. There are two instances of 0 % verb repetition rate and that is at Time 25/6 where Tesa is talking about Ghosts and at Time 5/2 where Natasha is telling the class about her friends. In some instances, like Kudzai's rates, the increase from Time to Time appears to be gradual. For example, at Time 26/1 where Kudzai is describing her holiday experiences, she realises a verb repetition rate of 25 %. When the topic is repeated at Time 5/2 and 29/2, the rates increase only slightly but progressively from 27.3 % to 32.5 %.

Name	Average VRR	Name	Average VRR
Kudzai	20	Chenai	17.8
Tesa	19.5	Venesa	21
Natasha	24.4	Neria	29.2
Benita	22.4		
Groups Average		22 %	

Table 1. School East: Average repetition rates for verbs.

School West: Analysis of repetition rates for all lexical items

The pattern of repetition rates that characterizes the developmental process for School West pupils, as can be seen from the graph, is not quite similar to that of School East. School West realises a lexical repetition rate of 49.7 %. This average repetition rate is nearly double that of School East. In fact, all average repetition rates for individual pupils at School West are higher than all the average repetition rates for individual pupils at School East. The following excerpt from Time 3/3 where Kinopa is telling the class about a film she has watched, illustrates the nature of repetition rates that are seen at School West:

I want to talk about Macgyver. Macgyver is a good film, film, I like to watch Macgyver very much. He he he he acts as a thief. He beats people, he beat people and she he (silence). He beat people and he take he took things of other people. He he he can shoot people with a knife. He is a, he is a good actor. I like him very much. He can, he can, he he can, he can kill people and he can help some people.

Figure 7: Lexical repetition patterns for School West.

In the excerpt above, the word people has been repeated 7 times, Macgyver 3 times, beat 3 times, good 3 times, like 2 times and film 2 times. Although communication does not necessarily break down, a number of those words have been unnecessarily repeated. The highest repetition rate at School West is 77.7 % which is realised by Fura at Time 3/3 where he is describing his holiday experiences. Although all the pupils' rates are characterised by various forms of systematic and non-systematic variability, it appears that variability at School West is much more non-systematic than it is at School East, because the rates range from as low as 13.7 % to as high as 77.7 % and the changes that occur to the learners' repeat rates are much more unpredictable than they are at the other school.

Analysis of repetition rates for verbs: School West

Compared to those of the other group, the average repetition rate for verbs for School West of 32 % is much higher than the rates for School East. And unlike at the other school, there is no instance of 0 % verb repetition rate. Verb repetition at School West is particularly interesting because, at least in some instances, the relationships between the rate at which some verbs are repeated and the learner's proficiency rate in the use of the same verbs appear to be much more explicit. In other words, some of the verbs that are repeated are

also inaccurately realised. In order to substantiate the above claim, the excerpt below, in which Fura, at Time 3/3 is talking about a film he has watched, is presented.

Macgyver help, help ... and Macgyver give people money and he kill the people who want to kill the others. And he kill the people who want to kill and want to kill the woman and the babies.

In the excerpt above, the repeated verb help has also been used inaccurately. Also, the verb kill has been used 5 times and in 2 of the Times, it has been inaccurately used. The same applies to the verb want which has been used 3 times. Because Fura is talking about a story which happened in the past, the verb want should have been used in the past. Also, the first and third kill should have been used in the past. However, the fact that some verbs that are repeated are sometimes also those verbs that are inaccurately realised is a side issue at this point. It should not make the reader lose sight of the main argument in this section, that the verb repetition rates for this group are by far higher than those of group East. (see Table 2 and 3)

Name	Average VRR%	Name	Average VRR%
Tatenda	11.5	Jane	46.8
Fura	34.9	Tamuka	43.3
Petai	37	Liza	27.3
Kinopa	29	Tiki	28.3
Groups Average		32.3 %	

Table 2. School West: Average repetition rates for verb types.

Repetition rates for native speakers of English.

Lexical repetition by second language learners of English seems to be different from the manner in which native speakers of English use it. To substantiate this claim, data from native speakers was randomly selected from a British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) radio programme. This kind of native speaker data was selected because to the researcher, a BBC radio presenter, speaking on radio represents an ideal speaker of standard British English. Linda, a radio presenter is talking to Desmond (not his real name) an economic correspondent about the battle between Europe's mobile giants over takeover bids:

The battle between Europe's phone giants is over. Germany's Mannesmann will merge with Britain's Vodafone Airtouch and subject to the agreement of

shareholders, it will be worth over 300 billion pounds. I will ask our economic correspondent Desmond to explain the implications of the deal.

In the excerpt above, there is a 0% lexical repetition rate. However, the situation is slightly different when it comes to Desmond's response below:

Vodafone already was the leading player in the world of mobile phone networks and this is gonna create a truly dominant player. It's a huge business and it it creates a company that has the financial strength that is needed to undertake the enormous investment that is gonna be required for the next generation of mobile phone technology which will provide access to the internet for people while they are on the move.

In the text above, the words, player, gonna, and mobile phone each appear twice. The lexical repetition rate for this text is 17.6% which is much higher than the rate realized by Linda. However, in the next four texts, Linda realises a lexical repetition rate of 17.4% and 22.2% respectively, while Desmond realises a lexical repetition rate of 22.5% and 20% respectively. This means that the average lexical repetition rate for these two native speakers for the six texts is 16.6% which is significantly lower than the average rates realized by Group East which is 25.7% and much lower than the average repeat rates for School West.

A great deal of the repetition used seems to be that kind of repetition which does not necessarily tamper with conventions of natural talk unlike what is at Group West. In Desmond's text, the word player serves a cataphoric function because it prepares the reader for its reappearance in the next sentence. And when it does re-appear, it is established that it is an anaphoric reference to the one that appears before it. It therefore appears that the repetition of lexical items in these texts is carefully executed to serve a specific communicative function.

Conclusion

In this article, the researcher has attempted to make a developmental study of vocabulary acquisition by 2 groups of ten year old second language speakers of English (School East and School West) by focusing on the analysis of lexical repetition patterns. It has been argued that learners who are exposed to different kinds of English input do seem to exhibit different patterns of lexical repetition rates. And, using a framework for data analysis based on the type-token ratio, two sets of lexical repetition calculations are

made. The first and more important is the determination of repeat rates for children based on all lexical items in the sample.

School	East	25.7%
School	West	49.7%

Table 3. Average repetition rates for all lexical items for Schools East and West

School	East	22%
School	West	32.3%

Table 4: Average repetition rates for verb types for Schools East and West

The second involves the calculation of repeat rates for verbs—verbs because together with nouns, they are the most content-full of lexical items. The calculations reveal that lexical repetition rates and verb repetition rates for School West (49.7% for all lexical items and 32.3% for verbs) are by far much higher than those of School East (25.7% for all lexical items and 22% for verbs). Therefore, as Henzl and Kleifgen (1985) cited in Ellis (1990:75) have also observed, the researcher suggests that those groups of learners with higher percentages in average repetition rates for lexical items (School West) are more likely to be less proficient in the use of those lexical items than those groups of learners with lower percentages of lexical repetition rates. However, in order to minimize instances of lexical repetition at School West, and improve the learners' general linguistic proficiency, it may be necessary to take a cue from researchers such as Brumfit (1984) Littlewood (1981), Widdowson (1979) and Mhundwa (1998) who argue that the communicative language teaching and the communico-grammatical approach should almost always be at the centre of the various language teaching methods that are used in language classrooms if therapeutic intervention techniques are to succeed.

Through these approaches, pupils learn language of 'real life', also known as 'realistic whole language.' Also, researchers such as Carrier (1980) Hawkins (1989) and Hadfield (1985) argue that it is imperative for language teachers to make extensive use of televisions, radios, novels, magazines, newspapers, language games and audio-visual tapes in order to enable pupils to improve their communication skills. Furthermore, according to Canale and Swain (1980) and Tarone and Yule (1991) this also enables learners to ultimately attain, grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competence, which collectively, constitute the learners' communicative competence.

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